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ETHICS, PROFESSIONALISM AND THE IMAGE OF THE PUBLIC SERVICE

Report prepared by the Secretariat*

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I. INTRODUCTION

1. Public service represents one of the very oldest, most highly prized, most widespread and celebrated values in the history of humankind. In traditional societies, little distinction was made between voluntary service for the good of the community and remunerated work performed on a professional contractual basis. A fusion of the roles of government and governed, direct participation in the affairs of state, and the growth, in this manner, of a political culture and administrative skills were favoured by conditions of relative stability and the presence of a leisured class imbued with a strong commitment to the polity's well-being. This situation, however, was transformed with the emergence of vast multinational kingdoms and empires from China through Persia to Rome.

2. In modern times, the rise of the administrative state, from the eighteenth century onwards, also led to a vast expansion of the public service. It has been accompanied by bureaucratization which, as Max Weber observed, profoundly revolutionized organizational structures and values. Ironically, those values have lately come into conflict with the long cherished claims of democratic citizenship and participative government. Professionalization of the public service has changed the nature of public organizations by implanting deeply the instrumental rationality that has dominated societies around the globe. This dominance, however, has been more pronounced in the Western countries than in developing nations.

3. Rationalism and positivism have been part of Western cultures for almost 200 years, whereas normative values are still dominant in most developing countries. However, globalization and cultural convergence, on the one hand, and counter-pressures from below against this rampant instrumental rationality, on the other, are changing this situation. The result has been a clash of major values underlying the administrative and political systems around the world.

4. The rise of mixed economies after the Second World War and decolonization gave a boost to the administrative state. Eventually, however, the fall of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics resulted in a reconsideration of societal, organizational, and economic principles. As the dominant economic system, capitalism appears to have risen to the top, with the United States and some European States as leaders in this new global environment.

5. Capitalist ideology advances the supremacy of the marketplace, together with the benefits of private enterprise and administrative rationality. However, this new trend has been accompanied by pressures from below from citizens who seek empowerment, smaller government, less governmental intrusion into their private lives and democratization of the policy process. The result has been a clash of citizenship values, on the one hand, and the professional administrative values, on the other. Consequently, public service has been badly damaged in terms of institutional capacity, quality of performance, and public image. Resolving this conflict requires the reconciliation of administrative and citizenship ethics.

II. THE CRISIS IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE IMAGE

6. It is through integration of these conflicting values that the image of the public service can be revived and enhanced. This paper addresses this and other issues for discussion and policy recommendations. Firstly, a number of factors contributing to the decline of the image of the public service are discussed. Then, several perspectives are presented on administrative ethics. This is followed by a discussion of professionalization in the public service and its implications for public service ethics. Subsequently, a discussion of public administrators as guardians of the public trust is presented. Finally, some guiding ethical principles are outlined, followed by an annex with some ethical issues, whose policy implications could be explored and debated. Many factors have contributed to the rise and expansion of the modern administrative state. Over the years, the role of government has grown dramatically. It soon became the engine of national growth, of private sector development, of the provision of public services, and of the protection of individual rights. Professionalization of the public service has been a common feature of both capitalism and socialism.

7. In capitalist countries, mixed economies arose, blurring the boundaries between the two sectors. The values of the public and private sectors also merged to an extent. Still, public service values and commitment remained strong. These professional administrative values displaced those of the earlier political machine systems, which prevailed in many countries during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries - thus the professionalization of the civil service which followed, resulted in the separation of politics and administration. The politics-administration dichotomy was a dominant philosophy of the administrative state and of the public service. However, despite the improvements in public service delivery which it provided, it also introduced another dilemma in the form of the dichotomy of politics and administration.

8. The dichotomy put professional administrators in a position of vulnerability, enjoining them to abstain from public policy making and not to engage in activities in the domain of politics, however defined. The democratic values of responsiveness, responsibility and accountability became major political values, which were perceived to be in conflict with the administrative values of professionalism, efficiency and effectiveness. Consequently, the administrative state and the public service came under attack from an array of crusaders for democracy. These anti-public service, anti-bureaucracy and anti-government forces have had ideological, political, social, and economic underpinnings, whose exploration goes beyond the limitations of this paper. A severe decline of the public service followed in terms both of institutional capacity and the image it presented in the United States and around the world. The result has been a major crisis of public service professionalism.

III. THE ADMINISTRATIVE ETHICS MOVEMENT

9. Rampant political jobbery and economic corruption have provided much of the impetus for the development of modern public administration and the professionalization of the civil service. Thus, in the United States of America, the 1883 Civil Service Reform Act "actually was the full equivalent of

a constitutional amendment, even though there was no way to describe it as such". And as Frederickson put it recently, "the contemporary government ethics movement appears to have essentially the same purpose as the reform movement a century ago - to reduce government corruption". Never before have ethics been so important. The significance of ethics in governance and the public service is high for several reasons. First, the level of corruption in government has increased dramatically. Taking bribes by public officials - mostly political - is a pervasive phenomenon around the world, and the business sector is a major conduit for this practice. Small and big "scams" have resulted in the conviction of numerous officials. Corruption has been a pervasive and enduring public issue. Second, increasingly, "people do not equivocate on government corruption. It is wrong and they are against it." Third, government corruption is a policy issue with strong "carrying capacity". It has reached saturation level. Fourth, matters of government ethics are being increasingly institutionalized. Fifth, ethics cut across all policy fields: business, medical, social service, insurance, social security, the military, economic, scientific etc.

10. The growing global concern for administrative ethics has been manifested in at least three areas: academia, legislation and institution-building. Judicial aspects have also been reflected in cases reaching the courts and the decisions rendered. Considerable research and writing on administrative ethics have appeared in the form of scholarly books published during the past 20 years.

11. Institutional and legislative concerns for ethics have been expressed in many organizational and legal measures adopted to combat corruption, safeguard the integrity of public service and promote professional conduct based on sound ethical grounds. Almost all public organizations and associations of public service appear to have adopted codes of ethics. Institutional arrangements, such as offices to prevent or control unethical conduct, appear everywhere. It is a global phenomenon.

12. Eight major themes and perspectives appear to have emerged in recent publications on administrative ethics and accountability. They include:

(a) Citizenship and democratic theory, with an emphasis on the renewal of civic virtue. This theme views public servants as virtuous citizens and as guardians of community interests. Virtuous citizenship is important for democratic governance and administration. Loyalty to democratic values, responsiveness, responsibility and moral conduct are virtues of democratic citizenship. Civility, tolerance, respect for equality and for citizens' rights, as well as obligations are key values in democratic citizenship.

(b) Virtue ethics, with an emphasis on good character in public service and administration. It is an extension of the first. Character is the focus of study and practice in administrative ethics: the most critical problem is the scarcity of men and women of good character in positions of leadership - whether public, private, educational, or religious. For too long, the management orthodoxy has taken as axiomatic the proposition that good systems will produce good people. However, it is clear that a just society depends more on the moral trustworthiness of its citizens and leaders than upon structures and systems. Costly ethical failures of organizational leaders have caused irreparable damage

to public trust and to societal interests. As a personal attribute, virtue is a character trait that inclines us towards ethical conduct. Ethics has ancient origins. For Aristotle, moral virtue comes about as a result of habit, whence its name ethike is a derivative of ethos (habit). From this it also follows that none of the moral virtues arise in us by nature. Therefore, to Aristotle and all those following this perspective, administrative ethics are cognitive and learned values. But the social environment in which public administrators operate affects the cognitive values acquired or learned. Contemporary writers commonly associate the quest for excellence with the practice of virtue. This perspective has significant implications for modern public administration in that virtuous administrators can be trained and developed through ethical precept for public service. Therefore, unethical behaviour may be considered as a form of corruption, for corruption is the absence of civic virtue.

(c) Foundation thought and constitutional tradition, insisting on the public officials' ethical obligation to uphold such major values enshrined in constitutions as freedom, liberty, equality, due process, justice, etc. This perspective also values efficiency in the measure that the ethical and political values of democracy are upheld. It is as central to the theme of public interest as procedural versus substantive justice and seeks to maximize the salutary influence of personal interest and to control the adverse effects of popular passions.

(d) Ethics as education, with an emphasis on the study of ethics in the public administration curriculum and training public servants for an honourable career. This perspective has a grounding on the educational development of public administrators and highlights community service. Ethics is education in that it transforms officials by moulding their attitudes, behaviour and perception of others. It is through self-development that social administrative ethics are also promoted. Ethics as education is both external learning and internalization of moral values.

(e) The organizational context of ethics, with a focus on efficiency and effectiveness, but also on the normative values of fairness, justice, and moral conduct: organizations and their members must not be moral only where it is efficient to do so; they must be efficient only where it is moral to do so. Efficiency at any cost is not acceptable, but efficiency with moral and ethical conduct is imperative. Organizational structures reflect value choices and ethical commitments made by those who design organizations. They protect such ethical values as fairness, justice, honesty, accountability, and respect for rights, but may also impede them through built-in bureau pathologies. Structures and procedures may be viewed as mechanisms for pursuing ethical outcomes. Procedural justice is considered as a way to deal with the arbitrariness, tyranny, and injustice that may arise in the exercise of administrative discretion. Thus, discretion should be checked by means of judicial and other institutions. In public administration, a clash between ethics and organizational culture may occur. Critics argue that bureaucratic culture corrupts society through lack of human-centred norms. The manipulative role of power holders degenerates into a system of totalitarianism, in which organizational ethical values are compromised.

(f) Philosophical theory and perspectives, with a focus on rejecting positivism and post-positivist perspectives in public administration. Rejecting the neutrality argument, this perspective highlights the public servants' active role in upholding and promoting agreed-upon values of the community as public interests. Administrative ethics, therefore, identify professionalism with active moral conduct. The role of professionalism and of professional administrators is emphasized in administrative ethics.

(g) Ethics as consequence or utilitarianism, with a focus on the outcome of conduct and behaviour in public administration. In a major break with classical thought, Machiavelli argued (The Prince) that acts should be judged as good or bad depending on their consequences, rather than on their intentions or the characteristics of their actors. Following this line of argument, John Stuart Mill (1806-1873) wrote (Utilitarianism) that "All action is for the sake of some end, and rules of action it seems natural to pursue must take their whole character and colour from the end to which they are subservient. To be good, actions must be means to something admitted to be good, ... such as health or pleasure."

(h) Ethics as principle, with an emphasis on categorical imperatives in which absolute right is pursued. Immanuel Kant (1724-1804) approached the question of ethics from a very different angle than Machiavelli or Mill. Kant outlines his categorical imperative as the ultimate basis for ethical action or inaction.

IV. PROFESSIONALISM AND ADMINISTRATIVE ETHICS

13. From these theoretical perspectives, one can discern implications for modern public administration in which rationality-based organizational and normative values converge with virtuous citizenship.

14. Max Weber once observed that the modern state administration was bureaucratized everywhere. Both capitalist and socialist States and their administrative systems have gone through bureaucratization, and professionalization. Professionalization of public administration has been characterized by an adherence to the merit system, to task specialization, to systems of checks and balances, and to the organizational values of efficiency, economy and effectiveness achieved through political neutrality. It has also meant adherence to professional standards, values, criteria and ethics rather than political or other criteria.

15. Thus, generally speaking, the professionalization of public administration and the administrative state present two contrasting perspectives: professionalization introduces task performance, efficiency, effectiveness, objectivity, integrity, identity and cohesion. It also serves as a bulwark against political corruption and other substandard behaviours in the public service. Its value as a corrective has been recognized. However, the clash between professional civil service values, on the one hand, and the political values of responsiveness, responsibility, and accountability to citizens, on the other, has been a major source of tension between professional career bureaucrats and politicians, elected and appointed. The conflict between

professional and political values has captured much of the recent literature in public administration and political science around the globe. Are they really contradictory or complementary?

16. Two opposing perspectives prevail on this question. The one against professional discretion and participation in policy-making asserts that such participation is undemocratic because non-elected, appointed bureaucrats cannot be held accountable to members of the electorate. This perspective also contends that democratic values of responsiveness and responsibility are lost as professional bureaucrats play a part in policy decisions. It is increasingly difficult not to hold professional experts accountable, since only they understand the minutiae of the knowledge they possess. The counter-argument for professional values asserts that professional standards serve the broad public interest. Therefore, they are responsive to societal needs. Accountability is achieved through organizational, professional and personal mechanisms of checks and balances. In addition, legislative, judicial and other means of oversight are exercised over them.

17. A third theoretical approach consists in combining professional and democratic values in the public service. Therefore, to be a sound administrator it is essential to perform with high ethical values and to promote efficiency and effectiveness, but also responsiveness, responsibility and fairness or justice. Discretion must be exercised under multiple systems of checks and balances, but also with personal and professional integrity and prudence (practical wisdom). Therefore, to be a professional is not enough. One must also be a responsible and responsive administrator. This requires ethical education and training at all levels.

18. Professional public administrators may be seen as the guardians of the administrative state. They provide stability and continuity in governance, even in the midst of paralyzing political crises, upheavals and revolutions. It is an established fact that bureaucracy has survived political changes for more than three millennia. Public administrators play an active role in the formulation of public policies. But their impact on the pace, style, tone and quality of policy implementation is immense. They may be viewed as guardians of the public trust.

19. However, to many concerned citizens, experts and political authorities around the world, this assertion also raises a very fundamental question. Who then guards the guardians? This is also a central issue in public management. As Victor Thompson noted some time ago, the increasing specialization of subordinate employees has created a severe imbalance between formal hierarchical authority and the responsibility of high-level administrative elites, on the one hand, and their actual capacity to manage, on the other.

20. Accountability in the public service is very important because there are many aspects of administrative work that are open to corruption and subversion of the public interest. At the same time, there are aspects of professionalism that make it difficult to attain an acceptable level of accountability. The difficulty in attaining administrative accountability makes administrative ethics particularly important. Ethics is a form of self-discipline, an inner check on the conduct of public servants. Accountability is also an

organizational and political concern. It touches on issues of liability, as well as ethical matters. To deal with these two issues of worldwide concern, it is worth considering the question why some public administrators abuse their trust and act in ways considered to be contrary to the public interest and in violation of the public trust.

V. THE GUARDIANS OF THE PUBLIC TRUST

21. Generally speaking, there are three categories of factors that impel public administrators to violate the public trust. These are misrepresentation of the public interest, corruption, and subversion.

A. Misrepresentation of the public interest

22. Several factors at work shape public servants' concepts of the public interest. Most of the high-ranking administrative appointees are drawn disproportionately from upper and upper middle class backgrounds. This makes the bureaucracy socially unrepresentative. The social and economic class basis of the civil service is critical because it colours perceptions of how people live, what their problems are and what they want and need.

23. Excessive specialization is yet another source of misrepresentation of the public interest. Professional public administrators - like those who perform specialized functions - may develop a narrow outlook concerning the public interest, by either exaggerating the importance of what they do or by downgrading the work of others. Professional lawyers, medical doctors and scientists are example of this. Critics have even argued that bureaucracies and bureaucrats tend to develop bureau ideologies that frequently distort their view of public needs. This is because all officials exhibit relatively strong loyalty to the organization controlling their job security, prospects and promotion.

24. Lastly, misrepresentation may flow from close relationships of public organizations with particular clientele: health, agriculture, the environment, and urban development are cases in point. Public administrators working in such agencies may mistakenly consider the interest groups with which tney deal to be truly representative of the population as a whole. The concept of "iron triangles" refers to a phenomenon that has become pervasive in the United States and many other nations. Among the most powerful iron triangles found in the realm of public policy is the military-industrial complex (MIC). In a typical iron triangle, an informal alliance is formed among interest groups, administrative/bureaucratic elites, and legislative committee members (political elites). It functions outside the formal structure and process of the bureaucracy and government, with no records taken or references made. The business, bureaucratic and political elites dominate the policy process, producing tunnel vision and a corresponding lack of transparency and accountability in the transaction of public business.

B. Corruption

25. Corruption may be viewed as betrayal of the public trust, and is a worldwide phenomenon. It has contributed to the current crisis in the public service image. It is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss its many dimensions, consequences, and causes. Suffice it to say that definitions of corruption vary from culture to culture. What is legal and legitimate in the United States may be considered corrupt in other cultures. There are numerous forms of corruption, including bribery and kickbacks, which have become institutionalized in some political regimes. Other forms of corruption have become so pervasive as to be virtually accepted as normal, including nepotism, favouritism, patronage and the selling or exchange of office for personal gain. Corruption tarnishes the image of the public service and deligitimizes the role of government; in all its forms it violates the public trust and civilized values. The pervasiveness of corruption in the public service makes it imperative to develop ways to guard the guardians.

C. Subversion

26. Subversion is another reason why public administrators need to be watched and controlled. Public administrators may engage in subversive activities for a variety of reasons: extreme discontent or fear of job loss, resort to clandestine activities in cooperation with anti-government forces or organizations, corruption, and so on.

27. Important though it is, the task of guarding the guardians presents a number of problems:

(a) Special expertise and information: public administrators are often experts at what they do. The expertise and specialized information they possess puts them in an advantageous position, which is not matched by outsiders, specially common citizens, but even politicians. This technical, specialized expertise and information are the bases of administrative and organizational decisions, and often beyond the ability of outsiders and those charged with oversight to fathom.

(b) Full-time status: simply stated, the full-time status of public administrators makes it difficult for outsiders, who have many other things to do, to hold them accountable.

(c) Job security and other protections: most public administrators enjoy job security, and any adverse organizational action against them is subject to due process, civil service protection procedures and so on. Discipline and dismissals are difficult, though not impossible. Many small and petty administrative infractions can over time lead to a significant adverse impact on public service image and credibility, as well as on organizational productivity, performance, and service quality.

(d) The law of counter-control: according to Anthony Downs, it takes a bureaucracy to control bureaucracy. The "law of counter-control" has several manifestations in different parts of the world. It leads to duplication, waste

and the proliferation of bureaucratic organizations for control purposes, a practice which obscures the cardinal purpose of public service, which is to serve the citizens and to protect their interest.

(e) Coordination problems: such problems make accountability difficult for many reasons. For example, separation of powers in the United States between the Executive, Congress, and Judiciary has been a source of difficulties in securing accountability. Analogous examples may be found elsewhere in the world. It is often difficult to hold an agency or administrator accountable, when many organizations and officials are involved in implementation without proper coordination and control.

(f) Fragmentation of organizational functions and structures: this is another obstacle in securing administrative accountability. Fragmentation and overlapping functions and responsibilities cause confusion. Accountability is lost because no one seems to be responsible, where everyone is responsible. Blames are shifted from one source to another.

(g) The large size and scope of public administration: almost everywhere in the world, the size, missions and scope of public administration are extremely broad. Often the structures, rules, procedures and the number of employees employed complicates the task of holding public administrators accountable.

28. Yet, despite these major obstacles, a number of means have been used to secure accountability in public service and thus to guard the guardians. Codes of professional ethics and education constitute one broad category. A complementary approach encompasses political, legal, cultural, and other institutional arrangements, which are explored below.

VI. ACHIEVING ACCOUNTABILITY

29. Administrative accountability in the public service can be achieved through a number of formal means.

A. Managerial/organizational

30. This approach is applied worldwide and is a universal means of achieving accountability in all kinds of organizations. It has several major tenets or values that cut across all organizations and the prevailing culture in societies. These universal organizational values are efficiency, economy, effectiveness, and control. The first three are values of instrumental rationality, while the fourth is both a normative and a rational imperative of organizational accountability. Organizational unity is important for maximization of these values, and several means are used to secure it.

31. Firstly, hierarchy, authority and responsibility need to be clearly defined and assigned. Overlapping functions should be reduced; lines of hierarchical authority should be clear and comprehensive. Plural agency heads/leadership tend to divide subordinates' loyalties and to obscure responsibility.

Subordination also is necessary for organizational unity, effectiveness, and accountability. Insubordination is seldom tolerated and is punishable by dismissal. Lastly, the span of control is an effective means of organizational accountability. Essentially a part of the orthodox, classical management and organization theory, a narrow span of control has been viewed as an important principle of accountability.

32. Organizational loyalty is expected of all members and is assured in many ways: these include socialization into the organizational milieu; occupational specialization makes it difficult for employees to find equivalent positions elsewhere; and dependence on organizations, through pension schemes or indeed conflict-of-interest regulations close the revolving door. Such countries as the United States have legislative regulations that tend to be comprehensive on these matters. Formal disciplinary systems enforce accountability and subordination. They are designed to identify the types of proper conduct and to prevent abuse of agency authority and property.

33. Disciplinary systems have often been criticized as largely ineffective. Public accountability should seek to enforce much higher standards of behaviour, an approach that is professional and legal or constitutional in nature. Audits are strong deterrents to corruption or other abuses of public trust. Audits can also be internal or external, and it may be desirable to employ external as well as internal audits. In many public organizations, both are required.

B. Political means

34. The political approach takes a different road in stressing the need to develop an external means of accountability in public administration. This is frequently done through political control of personnel systems by using patronage appointments. However, other important means are also applied effectively and are familiar to most systems:

(a) Legislative oversight, which can be achieved by means of legislative requirement for the ratification of the appointment of agency heads, legislative investigations and auditing;

(b) Budgetary control, which means the power of the purse, an extremely important legislative check on executive power;

(c) Rotation in office in order to reduce the risk of misrepresentation of public interest, amassment of power or empire-building by key administrators. This is an ancient personnel practice going back to Persia and Rome. Its utility is recognized for a number of reasons around the world. The 1978 Civil Service Reform Act of the United States created the Senior Executive Service to enable the federal civil servants to move from one agency to another. Political executives are routinely rotated from office to office, or out of office, when a new political boss arrives;

(d) Representation and public participation as a means of broadening the composition of public service and encouraging diversity, which may bring

administrative values closer to the general public, thus reflecting citizens' perspectives and preferences;

(e) Whistleblowing is a widely known practice, with its benefits and costs. The use of hot lines and other confidential channels may be safer for public administrators, protecting them from reprisals. Leaks to the press, exposure to the public and the media, reporting to higher authority, resignation in protest, and exposure are some means of whistleblowing. Some countries have passed legislation protecting whistleblowers;

(f) Sunshine laws, which require open public dealings as important means of securing accountability and proper conduct of public officials. Today, most American states and local governments have adopted sunshine laws;

(g) Conflict of interest, which is similar to the organizational and managerial approach.

C. Legal approach

35. This is a judicial approach to administrative accountability. Administrative liability is one issue; another is a strong and personally internalized incentive to protect the constitutional rights of individual citizens.

D. Cultural approach

36. This is another means of achieving accountability in public service. It requires inclusion of significant ethical components in the educational curricula for children and adults. Ethical education can be carried out through religious and secular institutions. Religious institutions and values can be used as major guiding principles in public service conduct. For example, in Islam, like in other religions, there is a high value attached to being a public servant and to proper behaviour in personal and public life.

E. Ethics institutional approach

37. A number of institutions can be created and empowered to promote and enforce ethical behaviour and accountability. For example, programmes for whistleblowing, ethics hot lines, ethics boards and commissions, ethics education programmes for elected, politically appointed, and administrative officials, agency ethics officers, financial and conflict-of-interest disclosure systems, and professional codes of ethics are typically found in modern governments. Australia, Canada, the United States of America, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the Islamic Republic of Iran, India and many developing countries have most or all of these institutions in place.

VII. GUIDING PRINCIPLES IN PUBLIC SERVICE ETHICS

38. Administrative ethics has been enhanced by professionalization in the administrative state. While public service ethics and accountability remain major concerns, the incidence of corruption and unethical behaviour is mostly found to be on the political side of the public service. Political executives are often at the apex of public organizations and, as elites, they tend to be key players in most scandals. Professionalism in public administration has helped in curbing political corruption around the world.

39. Acting as guardians of the public trust, professional administrators are in a central position to revive and enhance the image of the public service. This is a major challenge, which entails a conscious effort of advocacy and enforcement. The following paragraphs present a list of principles that can guide public administrators in promoting the above goals. These principles or precepts are identified as dos and don'ts.

40. Ethical education. Ethical education is a must and should be part of all educational systems at all levels. However, education and training in administrative ethics are most essential for public service careers anywhere in the world. They must include both personal and administrative ethics. Civic virtues, virtuous citizenship, respect for others, protection of individual rights and other ethical values should be internalized by public servants. Advice to top executives should also include the following: set the example and tone for the entire organization by emphasizing education and training in ethics, by thinking and behaving ethically. Advice to public employees: educate yourself with ethical and moral principles and act ethically; do not compromise on principles; disobey unconstitutional, immoral, illegal, and unethical orders and expose them through the appropriate channels; find appropriate ways to do it.

41. Preservation of professional and personal integrity. Professional values should prevail over organizational or personal orders of superiors deemed questionable. Responsible professionalism is an essential component of administrative behaviour. This requires self-regulation, knowledge, self-control, a degree of autonomy and personal independence, subordination of private interests to the public interest and public trust.

42. Prudence. The exercise of prudence, which means practical wisdom, was emphasized by two great Persian thinkers of the Middle Ages - Ibn-e-Cina and Nizam-ul-Mulk. Every society has its own thinkers of this calibre. Prudence requires self-control, discretionary decisions based on knowledge, expertise and ethical judgement.

43. Public spirit. Private interests should be subordinate to public, community interests. In making decisions or acting as an administrator, think of the public trust, and citizens' interests first, then think of yourself. Develop civic virtue, act virtuously and promote virtuous citizenship by being a virtuous citizen and acting as a virtuous administrator.

44. Avoidance of all problems causing public service crises. Some of these problems are beyond one's control as an administrator, but those values and

factors that deter public service corruption and compromise should be adhered to.

45. Be a responsible administrator. Act with restrain, discretion and freedom that is also responsibility. Be an example to others. If you cannot continue to perform your duties properly, resign and expose those who make it impossible for you to perform ethically and professionally.

46. Promotion of the common good. Devote your time, expertise, and knowledge to building community values and defending the rights of the poor, as well as of the affluent. It is the public interest and trust that you must serve at all times with integrity.

47. Be competent and fair. Competence comes with training, skills development and knowledge. It is extremely important to apply competence with fairness, equity, and justice in administrative positions. Efficiency and effectiveness are important organizational and managerial values, but they must be blended with fairness, equity and justice. It is this blend of ethical and professional values that makes professional ethics in public administration possible and desirable.

48. Follow and enforce the professional code of ethics. Codes of ethics in public administration are written and unwritten collections or systems of laws, rules, regulations, and norms that guide public service conduct. They are statements of ideals, canons of action consonant with those ideals and binding means of enforcing behaviour within the boundaries established by the code. Opponents of codes of ethics argue that one should resist moralizing everything, that rigid codification of right or wrong is dysfunctional, and that bureaucratic neutrality considers it immoral to pass moral judgements on public organizations. Proponents of codes of ethics cite the objectivity and the positive value added through code of ethics enforcement. Some codes of ethics carry sanctions for unethical behaviours while others are more aspirational or guides to public servants.

49. Establish and affirm professional identity as a public servant, as a professional, as a keeper of public trust and as an ethical person. Resist all forms of corruption.

50. Avoid unethical dilemmas as much as possible but, if caught in the middle, seek advice and exercise prudence. Most ethical dilemmas can be handled with prudence.

51. Act morally and ethically with a sound character and responsible judgement. Value and promote the image of the public service.

52. Combat corruption at any level and any time. Establish and use commissions of inquiry; wage war on indiscipline, and show moral leadership. Also use scholarly research and the confidential approaches mentioned earlier.

53. Develop and internalize a sense of total quality management (TQM): promote the idea of doing things right the first time and prevent the costly error of duplicating or repeating poor quality work. Do not cheat on your work,

internalize work ethics, and develop a sense of motivation for public interest and self-actualization.

54. View citizens as valued human beings and as community members, not merely as consumers or customers in the marketplace. Discourage an overly biased corporate ideology, which tends to promote corruption and unethical behaviour. Markets are not alternatives to public service. Rather, sound governance, public service and responsible citizenship are sine qua non prerequisites of a business-friendly environment, the smooth operation of markets, effective democracy and social peace.

ANNEX

Issues in administrative ethics

Public administrators face significant ethical issues on a daily basis. Some of these issues are strictly organizational, while others are broader societal issues concerning ethics and accountability. Both categories need to be reviewed by public administrators using ethical principles as their guide. The following is a list intended to generate discussion at the meeting:

Recruitment and selection
Employee drug screening and ethics
Alcoholism
Disciplinary action/termination
Salaries, wages and benefits packages
Discrimination on any basis
Downsizing
Who should go first under cutback programmes?
Sexual harassment and sexual orientation in the workplace
Workforce diversity
The right to strike
Political activities of public employees
Organizational changes affecting employees
Employee fitness programmes
Censorship
Private use of employee time and expertise
Patronage vs. merit systems
Whistleblowing
Future employability of employees
Private conduct vs. public conduct
Conflicts between political and career appointees
Covering for the boss
Hierarchical orders
Conflict of interests
Bribery and small scams
Influence wielding
Nepotism and patronage
Ethics of privatization
Morale and productivity
Politicization of the civil service
Merit system erosion
Use of public property for private use
Race, colour, convictions and gender
Fairness, equity, justice, efficiency and effectiveness